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THE TECHNE

Life without Labor is a Crime, Labor without Art and the Amenities of Life is Brutality.—Ruskin.

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A public government without public information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance, and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives.

—James Madison.

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The Techne publishes, for the most part, papers on educational subjects, though articles on closely related fields are also used. Part of these papers set forth the results of research; others aim at interpretation of current developments. Though some of the discussions will interest the specialist, it is hoped that in every number there will be something useful for the average teacher.

The Techne is sent free to alumni, teachers, school officials, libraries, and, on request, to any person interested in the progress of education.

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THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM AS PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE

By James A. Yates, Ph. D., Head of Department of Chemistry and Physics

(The following pages are excerpts from Professor Yates' dissertation, "The Type of High School Curriculum Which Gives the Best Preparation for College," which was submitted at the University of Kentucky in 1929 in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The University of Kentucky has since printed the dissertation in full as Vol. II, No. 1, of the Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service issued by the College of Education, from which publication these excerpts are taken. Wm. H. Kilpatrick of Teachers College, Columbia University, has predicted that Professor Yates' findings will be very helpful.)

THE PROBLEM

The type of high school curriculum which gives the best preparation for college has long been a subject for debate among educators. Thinking that a careful scientific analysis of this question would render a service to education, the writer has undertaken in this study to discover some facts upon which reliable and valid conclusions may be based. Since this analysis is based on high school and college marks, the problem may be defined as an attempt to discover the curriculum experience in high school which best prepares for college. The subjects studied in high school and offered for entrance credit to the university are in this dissertation denominated the high school curriculum. These entrance credits are classed into four groups according to the subjects which seem to indicate the pupil's principal interest. Each group will be referred to throughout this study by that type of curriculum which it most nearly resembles. When foreign languages appear to be the core around which the matriculant's entrance credits seem to center, his curriculum is referred to as the classical type; when science and mathematics seem to be the core around which the subjects center, the group is designated the scientific type; when the social sciences and modern languages appear to be the core subjects, the term general type is used; and when three or more vocational units are offered for entrance, the curriculum is called the vocational type.

Information in regard to the type of curriculum which gives the best preparation for college should be valuable in a special way to all who are called upon to give educational and vocational guidance, and to all administrative authorities in high schools and colleges. It should be valuable also in a general way to all who are interested in educational and vocational work.

Colleges, universities and the professional schools usually prescribe certain specific subjects for admission. However, these institutions have greatly changed their entrance requirements in specific subjects in the last few decades, thus indicating changing ideas as to what constitutes preparation for college. Accurate information in regard to the relation of the usual credits offered for admission to the successful carrying of the work of the college should be of service. For example, colleges often state in their entrance requirements that only a limited number of high school credits will be accepted from certain subject groups

which the high schools have found necessary to give in order best to serve their constituency.

Through admission requirements the colleges are trying to limit their student body to those who have had the educational preparation which the college authorities think is necessary in order that the student may profit by the work of the college. This study is an attempt to discover from objective data whether or not any valid basis exists for prescription of certain subjects and discrimination against other subjects in requirements for college entrance.

A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE EXISTING LITERATURE ON THE PROBLEM

A number of studies which relate to the problem discussed in this dissertation have been made. Clark[1] shows from a study of the records in high school and the University of California, Southern Branch, of 369 students of the University that the subjects which a student takes in high school cannot be relied upon to predict success in college. He compared 203 students who had twelve specified academic units with 166 who had fallen short one or more units of this requirement.

Holenbaugh and Proctor[2] made a similar study of 716 students who entered Stanford University in 1921 and 1922 and remained for at least one semester. They divided the students into two groups on the basis of the subjects studied in high school. Those who had had three or more units of vocational work were named the vocational group and those who had less than three vocational units the academic group. Five hundred and ninety-seven students were placed in the academic group and 119 students in the vocational group. They concluded that a student does not decrease his chance of success in college by taking from three to five vocational subjects or from 15 to 50 per cent of his preparatory subjects in the vocational group of high school subjects.

Jackson[3] studied the records of all the 698 freshmen who entered the University of Nebraska in Sptember, 1925, who had had all their high school work in one of the different classes of high schools of Nebraska. He classsified the high schools of Nebraska into four groups: (1) metropolitan, those of Lincoln and Omaha; (2) North Central Association, those that were accredited by the North Central Association; (3) those fully accredited by the University of Nebraska; (4) non-accredited. Jackson concluded that there is little or no difference among the students from the different types of high schools in terms of the success they have in their first year in the University of Nebraska.

Thorndike[4] showed by measuring carefully the ability of 9,000 tenth-grade pupils before and after taking a year of Latin that "one year's study of Latin as now organized does increase one's ability to reason—by a small amount—but that the gain is no larger than that do to the study of other school subjects as now organized. It is of great importance to find, for example, that bookeeping, cooking, and sewing

increases one's ability to generalize even more in some instances than does the study of the classics."

The effect of these investigations is shown in the conclusions drawn by the National Society of College Teachers of Education, concerning college entrance requirements. In part, these conclusions are as follows: "This growing flexibility of entrance requirements is prompted by a recognition of the fact that any single criterion of ability accurately to forecast success or failure in college study is inadequate. The necessity for multiple prediction based on the assemblage of varied prognostic measures is demanded not merely by continously surprising experiences with individual students but also by a constantly accumulating body of statistical data. In the light of this guidance, colleges are moving toward a comprehensive estimate of student capacity that will not merely be more just to the individual but which will make for superior college work."[5]

If the subjects studied in high school have no special effect upon college success, as these investigations seem to indicate, then the subjects which are responsible for failures in high school need careful consideration. Among the important studies that have been made on this question may be mentioned that by Adams.[6] He has shown from a study of 4,739 pupils found in seventy of the smaller high schools located in over half the counties of Kentucky that mathematics and Latin are responsible for approximately sixty per cent of the failures in these high schools. Two-thirds of all the failures occur in the first year. He found also that about seventy-five per cent of these pupils expect to go to college after graduation.

Gardner[7] found from a study of the failures in the Fort Worth, Texas, high school that more than one-half were attributed by the pupils to a dislike of the subject.

Adams[8] shows from a careful and intensive study of the seven township high schools of one of the best agricultural counties of Indiana that failures were greatest in strictly academic subjects in which the pupils were not interested.

Meyers[9] shows from a study of vocational agriculture in 722 high schools located in thirty-five states that this type of work is a large factor in reducing the number of pupils who drop out of high school. He further shows that 50.4 per cent of the pupils who have had one or more years of vocational agriculture have graduated from high school. An investigation of the high school marks of 7,860 of these pupils showed that 27.3 per cent were classed high, 53.4 per cent were classed average and 19.3 per cent low in scholarship.

Are the present high school courses in English, the social sciences, foreign languages, mathematics, and the sciences, the courses which give the best preparation for college and also for life; or must the secondary schools give one type of curriculum for college preparation and another for preparation for life? This comprises a problem of

great economic interest, especially to the smaller high schools, which comprise the large majority of all high schools. Quite recently, the programs of the secondary school were usually divided into college preparatory, agricultural, commercial or some such types of curricula. However, there is a growing sentiment opposed to this inelasticity of curricula, as may be seen from such reports as the Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. This organization has, since 1923, given a great deal of thought and investigation to curriculum construction for the elementary and secondary schools. Among their recommendations may be mentioned the following:[10]

(1) That the high schools require their pupils to elect coherent curriculums instead of single courses

(2) That the high schools place increased emphasis upon the fundamentals of English

(3) That the high schools place increased emphasis on the formation of habits of work and economical methods of study

(4) That the high schools recognize as one of their paramount aims the guidance of students relative to preparation for college work

(5) That the high schools and colleges reduce to a minimum the number of prescribed units and demand rather the evidence of the completion of a well-rounded course in terms of a major of three units in English and two minors of two units each in other academic subjects.

(6) That the high schools collect evidence concerning the native ability, ambitions, and elements of character of prospective students and that the colleges make greater use of this

The principle underlying these recommendations seems to be that any well-rounded four-year curriculum in which the work is well done prepares for college just as in the other divisions of our educational system the completion of one grade or unit prepares for the next.

Prescribing a subject for college entrance perforce indicates that it possesses special merit or value as preparation for college work. The recommendations quoted above mention only English, and suggest further that emphasis be placed on the fundamentals of this subject. This may be construed to mean that the high school should teach the pupils to read understandingly, and to acquire the ability to express their ideas in both oral and written form in good English, a task to which every subject taught should contribute.

TECHNIQUE OF INVESTIGATION

The most common method of admitting students to college or university, except in the East, is by means of a transcript of the records of subjects which the pupil took in high school. Usually this transcript must be signed by the superintendent or principal of a high school which has accredited relations with the state university of the state in which the high school is located.

Educational institutions at both the secondary and college levels keep careful and accurate records of the marks which the teachers of each subject give the student in that subject. In colleges these marks of the teachers are usually signed by the head of the department in

[10] Department of Superintendence—Sixth Yearbook. "The Development of the High School Curriculum," pp. 154-155. Published by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D. C., 1928.

which the teacher works and then filed permanently in the office of the registrar of the institution. Upon the showing made by these records the student is graduated, receives invitations to membership in honorary fraternities, along with the plaudits of his fellow students and friends. Usually no other records of the student's activities are kept.

The fact is recognized that numerous studies have demonstrated the unreliability of teachers' marks. However, marks are the best measures of student achievement which have thus far been put into general use in high schools and colleges throughout the central and western states, and are the only measures which are generally available for statistical treatment. It is the opinion of the writer that an attack on the problem of preparation for college should not be delayed pending the development of more accurate measures of student achievement. The use of admittedly unreliable teachers' marks in this study is therefore defended on the grounds of expediency, since marks are the only measures now generally available.

The basal plan of studying the problem was to obtain facts regarding the high school and college curriculum experience of a large number of students, and from these facts to try to discover existing relations between curriculum experiences in the high school and those in the college.

It was thought that if the records of the entire membership of a class who had completed a four-year curriculum in college were carefully studied, some facts would be found which would reveal the correspondence between the students' high school records and their later records in college. Therefore, the exact records of the entrance credits of each member of the class who was graduated from the University of Kentucky in 1928, and who had completed in the University of Kentucky the entire four years work required for the Bachelor's degree were studied. The number in this class who complied with all the conditions was 159. In order that proper comparisons might be made, the records of all members of the class graduating in 1927 who had done all their college work in the University of Kentucky were also obtained. In all, 136 members whose records complied with all the conditions were found in this class.

In order to get more cases and a greater variety of data, the same information was obtained from Indiana University for its graduating class of 1928. There were 213 in this class who met the prescribed conditions. To each of these state universities students come from all parts of the respective states and from all types of accredited high schools.

There is still another type of public university, the municipal, and in order to have a wide cross-section of the entire public educational system, the complete records of 198 graduates of the classes of 1927 and 1928, who met all the conditions of this study, were obtained from the University of Cincinnati. In all, then, 706 graduates from the three universities mentioned have had their complete high school and college

records carefully studied for any relationship that might exist between them.

The complete records which were obtained include all the recorded facts of curriculum experience in both high school and college, since each case studied is a graduate of both units. If the data of college freshmen, sophomores, or juniors had been used, then only a part of the college curriculum would have been available for comparison and some relationship of the variables might have been overlooked because of incomplete data. The accuracy of the data has been assured by taking exact copies of both high school and college records which were on file in the registrars' offices.

Records of the mental test given students in the two state universities were also studied in connection with their other records. Since the University of Cincinnati does not keep a record of mental tests in its registrar's office, this part of the study, in so far as it pertains to the University of Cincinnati, had to be omitted. The exact score made by each student on the freshman mental test was copied from the original files of the records at the University of Kentucky and Indiana University.

That these data might be studied to the best advantage all of them were reduced to point form and weighted. At each of the universities, the teachers' marks are recorded in letters, A, B, C, D, and E, and in each case the marks are weighted by giving each semester hour of work recorded with a mark of A three points, each semester hour with a mark of B two points, and each semester hour with a mark of C one point. A mark of D carries no points but gives credit in semester hours and a mark of E represents a failure, giving no credit in hours or points. A student in order to be graduated must have as many credit points as he has hours of credit.

The transcripts of high school records upon which the students were admitted to the university sometimes have the teachers' marks recorded in letters, usually with four ranks, since failing marks are not reported, and sometimes in percentage marks, with 70 or 75 as the lowest mark giving passing credit. No system of weighting the entrance credits is in use by the admission of authorities.

In order to study statistically both the entrance and college credits of the graduates, any easy, uniform system of weighting was adopted. The plan which was chosen is practically that used by the universities, changed only by increasing by one the number of credit points for each semester hour. This method lessens the possibility of confusing credit hours and credit points, and avoids giving equal weighting to two different marks, D and E. It likewise furnishes an easy scheme for weighting the entrance credits, since any unit bearing any one of the four passing marks was accepted for entrance.

Each semester hour of credit and each entrance unit was changed into points according to the above scheme. In this way it was only a

matter of addition to get the total points earned during the four years in college. Also, it was easy to find the points earned in any subject together with the semester hours of credit in the subject. In a similar way the total points earned in high school were found. The points earned for each unit were recorded and the average for any subject carrying more than one unit was found.

It is recognized that there are probably many factors, other than high school marks, affecting success in college, and also that many of these factors, such as aptitudes, intersts, partcipation in extra-curricular activities, would be amenable to objective treatment. Unfortunately, however, the high schools do not generally keep such records, and the state universities do not give much weight to information on these matters in selecting their matriculants. It is suggested that such records would be very useful in the scientific articulation of the public school system, and that more adequate information of this kind might be kept in the high school records. Such factors have not been given consideration in this study because of the unavailability of data concerning them.

The graduates of the universities of Kentucky and Indiana were arranged in each institution in separate groups, each group composed of all who had a certain type of entrance curriculum. The mental test score of each case was noted. This gave two groups in each institution with different types of curricula the members of which could be paired according to equal or approximately equal mental test score or rank. In each table all graduates were paired that met the conditions set up, and the comparative success in the university was studied for each of two students of equal mental ability who had pursued different types of high school curricula.

Students were also grouped according to percentile and quartile rank in high school points, and a study was made of the comparative success of these groups in college. Similarly the data was grouped by percentile and quartile ranks as determined by success in college, and the comparative success in high school of the groups was traced back.

The data were further analyzed by finding the correlation between points earned in each of six high school subject groups with the success of the graduates in the university. All graduates who entered the university with high school credits in each of the six subject groups—namely, English, mathematics, foreign language, social science, science and vocational subjects were chosen. The average points per unit earned in each subject group in high school were correlated with the points earned in college by each of the 706 graduates whose records met the conditions named.

1. When graduates were paired for mental ability no significant differences, as measured by credit points earned, were found in the average college success among groups having various types of high school curricula. In other words, when mental ability is kept constant, high school curriculum produces no significant difference in college success.

2. The graduates in the majority of cases tend to make the same rank in college as they made in high school regardless of the curriculum pursued in high school. The tradition that the best students for college are those who have taken the classical type of high school curriculum is not warranted by the facts shown in these tables.

3. Students representing each of four types of curriculum earned below and above the average of their class in college. A considerable per cent of the representatives from each type of entrance curriculum ranked higher than the average of their class.

4. Less than one-half of those who pursue a certain type of curriculum in high school continue the same type in college. In other words, there seems to be little tendency for students to continue in college the same type of curriculum they pursued in high school.

5. The percentile and quartile rank in high school gives a general index of the rank that will be earned in college. The type of curriculum studied in high school appears to have little value in predicting success in college. College majors are not indicative of any special success.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

A

1. Graduates who entered with different types of curricula and who had equal mental ability were paired and no significant differences were found.

2. The college major and high school curriculum of each graduate was noted. It was found that each type of high school curriculum was represented in the different college majors without a marked advantage in favor of any type except the major of ancient languages.

3. The college rank of each graduate above or below the class average and the type of entrance curriculum presented by each were noted. It was found that each type of curriculum was well represented in both ranks. No significant difference in favor of any type of curriculum was found.

4. It was found that graduates, as a rule, did not continue in college the same type of curriculum followed in high school.

5. The differences shown were examined by the statistical method known as critical ratio and found not to be significant.

B

Since the type of curriculum has little influence on college success, does the character of work done in a high school curriculum indicate the type of success to be expected in college?

1. The graduates being studied were ranked according to both high school and college success. It was found that not a single individual who ranked in the upper 10 per cent in high school earned a rank

2. Only 11 per cent of those who ranked in the lower 10 per cent in high school completed a college course above the average of their class.

3. Those who ranked as the middle 20 per cent in high school continued to rank around the average in college.

4. The variation in these percentile ranks in high school and college in the three universities is very small showing a general tendency for high school rank to be maintained in college.

5. The quartile rank earned in college by each graduate being studied was noted and compared with the points made in high school. There was found a strong tendency for any rank in high school to be followed by a like rank in college.

C

1. The correlation value of the different high school subject groups with college points are low and differ widely in the three universities.

2. By the means of partial correlations the influence of one subject group after another was removed and finally the relation of a single subject to college points remained. This value was found to be very small, often negative, and differed widely in the three universities.

3. All these correlation facts show that other important factors, not included in this study, are involved.

D

The findings of this study warrant the following conclusions:

1. University graduates whose entrance credits were from the same high school curriculum were paired according to approximately equal mental ability and no significant difference was found in their college success or rank. The influence of the type of high school curriculum was negligible.
in college in the lower ten per cent.

2. The chances are largely in favor of the success or rank earned in any of the four types of high school curricula leading to similar success or rank in college.

3. The low correlations found between high school subject matter and success in college emphasize the importance of other factors involved, which may be summed up in terms of teacher ability and pupil ability and activity.

4. The multiple correlations between high school subjects and college success were nearly equal in the three universities, but were low, emphasizing the importance of additional factors in high school and college marks.

5. The vocational subject in each university showed the lowest correlation value. A possible explanation is that this type of work is not as well organized as the work in the other fields. Also, tradition

has it that the poorer students in high school are placed in this type of work. When students of equal mental ability were paired, the difference was too small to be significant.

6. This study does not find sufficient facts to justify colleges in prescribing certain subjects for college admission. However, the facts found do warrant colleges in demanding a high school curriculum well done.

[1] Clark, William W. "Status of University Students in Relation to High School Courses," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 13, p. 36.

[2] Proctor, William M. and Holenbaugh, Lawrence. "Relation of Subjects Taken in High School to Success in College," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 15, pp. 87-92.

[3] Jackson, G. L. "The Influence of the High School upon Success in the University of Nebraska," Master's thesis on file at the University of Nebraska.

[4] Thorndike, E. L. "Mental Discipline in High School Studies." Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. XV. pp. 1-22, 83-98.

[5] Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Society of College Teachers of Education, p. 17. University of Chicago Press, 1929.

[6] Adams, Jesse E. "Reactions of High School pupils to High School Subjects," School Review, Vol. 35, pp. 354-362; 417-427.

[7] Gardner, C. A. "A Study of the Causes of High School Failures," School Review, Vol. 35, pp. 108-112.

[8] Adams, Jesse E. "The High School Pupil and His Curriculum," Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 12, pp. 1-13.

[9] Meyers, C. E. "Effectiveness of Vocational Education in Agriculture," Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 82, Agricultural Series, No. 13, pp. 12, 13, 14 and 46.

THE MEANING OF SOCIAL PROGRESS

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Since all persons are interested in and vitally concerned with any change that may be called "progress," it would seem wise at the very beginning of a discussion of the meaning of progress to define, if possible, the word. Probably the most common conception of progress is that it is a moving or going forward—a proceeding onward. This commonly accepted definition is largely responsible for the idea held by most people that any "proceeding onward" is an evidence of progress. Those of us who have given the matter serious thought are impressed with the fact that many changes are called progress, or are confused with it, which have little kinship with it.

If we confine our discussion to the meaning of social progress, we must first have some knowledge of the human "self" before any sound criteria of progress can be formulated. We know that the word "progress" is a human concept and that it always involves a standard of values and achievement. We believe that progress never comes except as the result of conscious and persistent human effort. One of the contributing causes to the complexity of the concept of progress is the modifiability and plasticity of human nature.

When we analyze the meaning of "progress" to people in general, we find three distinct groupings of opinion on the subject. There are those whom we sometimes call the "Impressionistic Optimists" who, according to their leaders, know from the general "feel" of things that "God is in His heavens and all is progressively better for the world." At the other extreme we find the pessimists who hold to the theory that retrogression or decadence is the law of social life. These are the people who are tremendously concerned with the so-called problems of the youth of today and can see nothing but utter ruin in store for the human race if some startling and radical changes in our social system are not inaugurated immediately. They are the people who offer no constructive criticisms of the problems of the day, but who use up all their time and energy in decrying the social needs of the hour. Certain historical records lead us to believe that we have had this class of pessimists in the midst of society from the earliest times and we should not be unduly alarmed when we find them in our midst today. Then we have another grouping, sometimes called the cynics, in our society, who laugh and tell us that, like squirrels in a cage, we go through motions but get nowhere. These are the people who hold that progress is theoretically possible, but that it is not necessary or inevitable or inherent in the nature of things. The real thinker rejects in entirety the opinion of all three of these classes. However, we are more inclined to believe in the last named theory rather than in the others.

We believe that change is necessary, but we do not believe that change and progress are synonymous. Shall we follow in the wake of some of the leading thinkers of today and hold to the theory that social progress is an increased interest in human well-being, and that if it has

any purpose at all it is the preparation of mankind for rational, purposive direction of its own future? Shall we align ourselves with those who believe that progress is simply another name for the conditions that afford an ever increasing amount of happiness to an ever increasing number of individuals, and maintain that under all considerations the first essential condition upon which the permanent progress of society depends is the enlarged social opportunities of the masses? Shall we establish as criteria for the judging of progress simply such factors as a growing preponderance of reason over the animality in human nature; an enlargement of man's power over the forces of nature; and an increasing aptitude for mental combinations and abstract thinking? Or shall we insist that if progress is to result, not only must these changes be brought about but that applications of such power for the betterment of mankind must also result? Shall we turn then to the four great forces of civilized society,—the home, the school, the church, and the state, and look to them for the creative influences that shall direct human nature so that we shall have the maximum of creative ability and co-operative service directed toward securing the greatest amount of happiness to an increasingly greater number of individuals?

We know that from the earliest times mankind has been concerned with developing various means of supposed control over events. Even primitive men attempted to bring about conditions which they thought were necessarily linked in some manner with desired results. It was in this way that the ceremonies and taboos which have played such a large part in the life of primitive peoples originated. Unfortunately, many of these early ceremonies and taboos, which had their origin in the misinterpretation of arbitrary forces in nature arising naturally from an inadequate analysis of casual connections, exist, to some degree, today. This accounts for the many errors that are made in attempting to trace the real cause of calamities or failures, of success and good fortune, and hence "superstition," among many individuals at the present time.

We know that from the earliest times man has recognized a conflict between his own desires and purposes, and the external forces and conditions, which we call environment. Although the existence of these arbitrary forces, both within and without the individual, was not rationally inferred, the attention of primitive man would naturally be directed first towards the outward things that tended to thwart their own purposes. In this way the "inner life" of early man was either neglected or undifferentiated from other events. Thus environment seems to have played the major role in the life of early mankind. We hold his philosophy and religion were reduced to the lowest terms of self-maintenance and self-perpetuation, and that a belief in future existence and provision for the maintenance of posterity came later with a growing intelligence, whatever the term intelligence may mean.

Leaving the discussion as to the exact nature of intelligence to the psychologists, we believe that it came as a natural development when the "inner life" came to be recognized as of importance. Thus we can

trace beginning of what we are pleased to call civilization. Increasing civilization has been called by some the test of progress. This statement leads us to ask, "What is Civilization?" Let us accept the theory that it is the result of the domination of man by himself, which would lead us to conclude that knowledge, applied power, and social unity are the striking differences found between civilized and uncivilized men. We believe that increased knowledge with practical applications of it, and social unity, tend to bring increased happiness to man in that it frees him from the fears, customs, and ceremonials of the primitive man.

SCHOOL MUST DEAL CONSTRUCTIVELY WITH THE INDIVIDUAL

If increased knowledge can, and should mean, increased happiness for the individual, where shall a love for knowledge be inspired? Shall the schools be charged entirely with the training of individuals so that they may be happy, interested, creative members of society, or shall other forces such as the home, the church, and the state be held responsible for their share of this desired training? And who shall determine what the proportionate share of each shall be? There is little doubt in the minds of individuals today that until within very recent years, the schools were charged almost entirely with the tasks of preparing individuals for efficient citizenship. The idea, to train for future living, in all probability dates back to the time when schools, if we may call them such, originated. This instruction was given at a time when the elders of a tribe wished to pass on to the youthful members of that tribe, in a formal way, certain chosen parts of tribal culture.

Schools, thus established to present formal training which would prpare definitely for future living, have, certainly until quite recently, adhered to this idea of preparation for future life. They have not kept pace with existing changes in the social order. The methods used have been of the repetitive, memorization type. Lacking the stimulus of a developmental theory of life, such methods naturally became static and repressive. As a result of such a system, we have had many misfits in society who have been restless, unhappy individuals, burdens to themselves and to society, because they were expected to conform to and be moulded into standards set up by individuals who deemed it unnecessary to taken into account individual differences and to give to the child an opportunity to practice being a "good" citizen. When the time actually arrives for an individual to actively participate in the affairs of his country, he should fit naturally into the situation because of having been made to feel during his childhood that he had a definite part to play in promoting the interests of society in general and to realize that effective living means continuous participation in the solution of the problems of life as they arise. The child should early be inculcated with the idea that we learn to do by doing and be given the opportunity to put such an idea into practice.

We know that progress is seldom uniform, and that progress along

educational lines has not kept pace with our progress along material lines. Strain from such maladjustments in our social order. An increasing civilization has brought about an increasing number of problems to be solved. Unless the schools of the country get a saner viewpoint of what is needed for effective, happy living now as well as in the future, our very civilization may be threatened. People must be taught to be constructive, purposeful producers of the desirable products of life. This has become imperative since the introduction of machinery into the industrial order. Leisure became a settled part of the life of the civilized world with the introduction of the numerous mechanical servants, which we boast of today. Leisure, as we know, is desirable from many viewpoints, but unless it is properly used it may be the cause of social upheaval.

When we entered into this industrial era, the universal conception of leisure was rest. Up to this time, work had been so incessant and the hours of labor so long, that at the end of the day the laborer was chiefly conscious of his weariness and was too tired to think of anything but rest. Rest, release from work, that to mankind has in itself been an end. Rest has, through all the ages, been looked upon as something very desirable. The New Testament offers to all that "labor and are heavy laden" rest. Poets have sung of the delights of the state of rest from all labors. The conception of rest and leisure was practically the same and has continued down to the present time Yet it is quite generally known that rest, or leisure, has usually degenerated into idleness, which is most detrimental to social progress. To overcome the influence of idleness there must be evolved a system of training in the use of leisure time that must become a definite part of our school and home life if we expect to go forward.

Foresight in planning for leisure is imperative in our existing social order, and in this planning for the use of leisure, careful attention must be given to the nature of the individual.We believe that the individual should be recognized and his rights and opinions respected. We believe that no person is entitled to say what another shall do with his life, but that this important problem is one which every individual should be allowed to decide for himself. We hold that it is foolish to believe, as many people do, that every man can do the same thing equally well if sufficiently trained. We insist that children have a right to be recognized, not merely as parts of a family or of society, but as individual human beings with minds and souls and hearts of their own, and treated accordingly both at home and at school. We believe that a person, be he large or small, must feel that he is worth while and that he is a valuable member of society. Our worthy use of leisure must contribute directly to this end. This means that we must consider what effect our leisure will have upon others and upon the world as a whole. And if leisure is to be of benefit, the activity provided for this period must be such that each individual may succeed in it to some extent. This aim calls for wise guidance on the part of adults for the children in their charge.

As for the part the home has to play, if it is to take its rightful place in society, let us reiterate the oft-repeated suggestion that the home is a social unit. It has been called a small edition of the community, which means that it should provide a full, busy, and happy life for its members. The home is spoken of as the fundamental institution of society. It is the nursery of the citizen and we believe that nothing which such outside agencies as the church, school, or state can do, will make up for any deficiency in the home life.

The family is the oldest of all institutions. We believe that it is the home, more than any other influence, that places the stamp of character on a citizen, making him either good or bad. While statistics are usually not very interesting, they are often enlightening. Prison records in this country for the year 1926 show that fifty per cent of the convicted criminals for that year came from obviously "bad" homes; forty per cent came from homes that could "only be termed 'fair' by a stretch of charity," and only ten per cent came from homes that an intelligent person would call "good." According to the records, too, nearly half of these unfortunate people left home at the age of fourteen years or earlier. This last statement is, of itself, a direct indictment of their childhood homes, for rare is the child who would leave his own home if it were a pleasant wholesome place in which to live! Such figures suggest the importance of wholesome personal conditions in all homes, and the need of directing education to *this* end.

HOME MUST BE MORE THAN A PLACE TO STAY

We feel that we are on perfectly safe ground when we say that not enough attention has been given to family life. Evidences of this fact are all about us. There are still large numbers of conscientious women presiding over homes who feel that they have done their duty when they have provided for the physical needs of those in their care,—when they have seen to it that food, clothing, and shelter have been supplied in sufficient quantities. Providing for the physical needs of a family is often a difficult problem, but providing for the mental needs of the family group is the more important problem. Fortunate indeed is the home where the wife and mother makes adequate provision for the mental growth of her household!

Who would not prefer to suffer some form of physical pain rather than to feel miserable from a mental conflict? The wise home administrator tries to eliminate both forms of illness, physical and mental. Let us not get the impression that the homemaker should try to solve all the difficulties for every member of her family. Parents desire for their children the power to face and overcome difficulties. To have learned to overcome a difficulty instead of avoiding it is a source of pleasure to the individual and tends to develop strength of character. The wise parent begins early to develop this quality in the offspring but is careful to see that the problems which arise are not too difficult

to be solved by the one confronted with them. Too much of the struggle should not be taken out of a child's life, because, when struggle ends, there is no more of what we call "progress." On the other hand, a child must not be allowed to become discouraged by being confronted with problems which are beyond his powers to solve.

Let us conclude, then, that the welfare, both physical and mental, of every member of the family group is directly in the hands of the homemaker, and that the whole community is affected by the way in which each home is administered. While the maintaining of the proper "atmosphere" in the home largely devolves upon the wife and mother, other members of the family should assume their respective shares in this important undertaking, following the lead assumed by the mother. It should be our duty to see that high standards are maintained and that the home is made a comfortable and pleasant place for each member of the family. The home is passing through a difficult period in adjusting the family to the new individual freedom which has come about by the changing social and economic conditions of our day. But any form of human organization that has endured since before the dawn of civilization may be expected to continue, and with more attention being given to affection within the family as a means of keeping it together, we expect the values of home life to rise higher and higher. This should result in the production of happier, more efficient members of society.

As for the part that the church has to play in promoting what we like to call the "good life," meaning one of helpfulnes and service, let us call attention to the fact that religion is a part of the integrated personality. The Church, standing as a symbol for religion and religious activities, makes a distinct contribution to the life of the individual. Who would want to live in a community where there was no church? We do not believe that the existence of the church is a necessity for religion to be practiced, but we believe that its function is to serve as a reminder of those things which are higher than human values. We believe that the spiritual life of a group may be closely bound up with the appreciation shown by each member of the group for all the others. We believe that spirituality makes for increasing harmony. In religious teachings, we are reminded to be thoughtful of others, and thoughtfulness of others often finds expression in acts of kindness. There is hardly a person who is not susceptible to words of appreciation and encouragement. Kind words inspire us to further efforts; let us not be too sparing in the use of them!

That the state has a definite contribution to make to what we are pleased to call "social progress" no one doubts. That the state often does impose barriers to social progress, there is also no doubt. With the best intentions on the part of our lawmakers, laws are often enacted which do harm instead of good. Shall we take compulsory education laws as an example to illustrate this point? There are those who argue that the compulsory education laws are really detrimental to the best

interests of society. They declare that since the children of the masses are forced into public schools the children of the rich and influential are put, as far as possible, into a rapidly growing group of private schools, and that the influential element then loses interest in the public schools. With what result? They tell us that since the dominant group is not personally interested in the public schools, its influence is not exerted to improve them. We are reminded that we prescribe education but not its form, and that education can really be a dangerous thing when schools are conducted on the old assumption that it doesn't matter what we learn so long as we learn something.

While we will not argue that compulsory education is a bad thing, we will most readily agree that schools do not function as they should unless the horizon of each child is widened and unless he is given command of his own powers so that he can find his own happiness in his own fashion. It should be our chief concern to study the normal impulses of children and the methods by which they may express these impulses in ways that are profitable. We should bear in mind that it is the teacher's task to use the innate desire of the child as the motive power for its own work and to make available those stimuli which the child "normally" seeks and which also serve the instructional purposes. We believe that if a lesson is not so arranged that it serves as an avenue of natural self-expression for the child, there is no internal motive power to make the child think, and the teacher is wasting time, if not doing actual harm. We hold that the teacher should realize that the starting point for any educative process is in the child's own mind and that the tools of education are merely the means whereby we attempt to induce the child to express its own self in a direction that may be advantageous to himself and society in general.

We hold to the theory that a stimulus that does not serve as a tool for the child's satisfaction, as seen by the child, is simply not a stimulus. This means that the main problem of interest is, therefore, in studying the desires of children and the numerous ways in which these desires may be satisfied. Our theory is that to think is to expect to act, and that thinking is also, necessarily, a conflict between two or more acts. Were it not for the conflict there would be no thought,—the thought would forthwith become action. We assume that the natural state of living is activity, the expression of the life-energy of the organism into action, random or purposive action, useful or useless action, according to the stimuli provided. If our schools train only for random, useless action, then, indeed, may we consider such a process detrimental to the interests of individuals and of society.

In summing up, let us agree with Professor John Dewey when he says that "progress is present reconstruction adding fullness and distinctness of meaning, and retrogression is a present slipping away of significance, determinations, grasp. Those who hold that progress can be perceived and measured only by reference to a remote goal, confuse meaning with space * * * we do not require a revelation of some

supreme perfection to inform us whether or no we are making headway in present rectification. Unless progress is a present reconstructing, it is nothing; if it cannot be told by qualities belonging to the movement of transition it can never be judged.

"Converting strife into harmony, monotony into a variegated scene, and limitation into expansion, is progress, the only progress conceivable or attainable by man. Hence every situation has its own measure and quality of progress, and the need for progress is recurrent, constant."

THE UNITED STATES IN THE SAMOAN ISLANDS

(By Lula L. Brown, M. A.)

The term "Samoa" is applied to a group of twelve small islands the combined area of which scarcely exceeds that of Rhode Island. The position of this group in the Southern Pacific is between latitudes 13-15 south, and longitudes 168-173 west, and it lies upon the direct route taken by vessels from western American ports which ply via Honolulu to the Australasian colonies. Of the twelve islands, five only rise above the rank of islets. The largest, Savaii, is of minimum value to the foreigner, inasmuch as it is encircled by a dangerous reef and possesses but a single harbor, which is small and by no means safe. The island second in size but the premier in every other respect, is Upolu. This lies some eight miles northeast of Savaii, is remarkable fertile, and contains the best cultivated and most productive plantations of Samoa. On the north coast are the harbor and town of Apia, the commercial and political capital of the group, with Mulinu'u, the seat of native government, close at hand. By its central position in the group, by its fine climate and the amiable character of its people, Upolu attracted many wanderers to its shores. Days of native simplicity, and welcome to the small trader and "beach comber," preceded the modern period of organized commercial enterprise.

With German, English, and American trading firms soliciting business upon the islands, Samoa entered upon an era of foreign interference and arrogance—an era of mischievous political plots and counterplots, of bitter jealousies and war. As early as 1850, England, Germany, and the United States were represented by commercial agents in Apia, and in 1854 the great South Sea trading firm of Godeffroy and Company of Hamburg, a chartered monopoly, established itself upon Upolu. For many years thereafter the history of Samoa was the history of this well-organized trading company. By a mortgage system, which was beyond the native understanding, large tracts of land fell to the company and these were converted into plantations of cocoanuts. In course of time rival American and English trading concerns sprang into existence at Apia. The efforts of the three consuls to protect the traders led to many official blunders. Several hundred foreigners—principally German, English, and American—resided at Apia. Commercial rivalry ripened into national jealousy, and all within the confines of a mile of ocean beach.

Incapable of regulating their own affairs within the municipality of Apia, these people often invoked the home government for the purpose of restoring order. When the situation became hopelessly involved and wholly beyond the possibility of local adjustment, England, Germany and the United States took the matter in hand. Therein lay the causes of the United States' abandonment of her time-honored policy of non-interference. The history of American political relations with Samoa is primarily of interest because of this first genuine instance of departure from a policy of non-intervention in the domestic affairs of alien peoples.

In 1872, Commander Meade of the U. S. S. "Narragansett" entered into an agreement with Maunga, Great Chief of the Bay of Pagopago in the island of Tutuila, whereby the chief, who professed a desire for the friendship and protection of the United States, granted to the government the inclusive privilege of establishing in that harbor a naval station for the use and convenience of United States government vessels.

About the same time the Department of State, wishing to secure trustworthy information in regard to the Samoan Islands to increase our commercial relations in that quarter of the globe, sent a special agent to these islands. Steinberger, the agent, made his report in 1874. The same year he was sent back to the islands to convey to the chiefs a letter from the President, and some presents. In 1877 a native of rank, named Mamea, was sent by the chiefs of Samoa to the United States as ambassador to conclude a treaty. Having made an unsuccessful application for annexation to Great Britain, Samoa sought to obtain the protection of the United States government. On January 16, 1878, a treaty between the United States and Samoa was concluded at Washington. In the second article the Government of the United States was granted the privilege of establishing a station for coal and other naval supplies in the port of Pagopago, and the Samoan government gave up all authority and jurisdiction within this port adverse to such rights. In the fifth article it was provided that the government of the United States would employ its good offices for the purpose of adjusting differences which should arise between the Samoan government and any other government in amity with the United States. No provision was made for a protectorate. In 1877, and again in 1878, the flag of the United States was raised by different American consular representatives in Apia as the sign of a protectorate, but on neither occasion was the act sustained by the United States.

On January 24, 1879, a treaty was concluded between Germany and Samoa by which Germany obtained the right to establish a naval station in the harbor of Saluafata, no other nation to be granted a similar right in that harbor. On August 28, in the same year, a treaty was concluded between Samoa and Great Britain by which the latter obtained the right to establish a naval and coaling station on the shores of a Samoan harbor other than the harbors of Apia, Saluafata, and that part of the harbor of Pagopago selected by the United States as a station.

The Samoan system of government was of the patriarchal type. The people had little idea of government, as understood by modern civilized nations. So when Samoa became a treaty-making power, the necessity for a stronger central government with a definite and responsible head was felt. The step from a patriarchal form of government was easily taken under the tutelage of the whites. The movements of native factions were keenly watched in the light of possible advantage to be gained by any political change. Every act of the king or his vice-king was examined with a jealous interest, to determine whether it favored Germans, English, or Americans. Civil dissensions between various native fac-

tions brought on a long period of strife. It was during this period that foreigners in Apia, for their own safety, obtained from both warring factions the recognition of a strip of territory around Apia as neutral and free from hostile attack. The three nations which had treaties with Samoa were authorized to exercise the rights of extra-territoriality. Though the three consuls declared neutrality, their languishing trade interests compelled them to intervene. Peace was finally restored only after Captain Deinhart of the German cruiser *Bismarck* bombarded the native villages.

The three consuls decided to take a still more active part in the management of local affairs to insure stability of the government they had united in establishing. They entered into a compact with Malietoa Telavu, agreeing to support his government, he to accept three advisers —a German, an Englishman, and an American. The successor of Teluva was to be chosen by the three powers March 24, 1880. The natives, unaccustomed to a centralized government, were discontented. This discontent was aggravated by the intrigues and rivalries of foreign interests. After a crisis in 1885, an international commission was appointed by the three interested powers to investigate and report upon the political and social conditions in the islands. The unanimous conclusion was reached that the natives were wholly incapable of maintaining a stable or efficient government. Armed with the reports, the Secretary of State and the British and German ministers at Washington met in conference, 1887, to take up the task of preserving order in Samoa.

Discussions at the conference which followed soon developed wide divergencies of opinion. The German proposition amounted to the reduction of Samoa to a German possession. The American plan of an executive council, composed of the king, the vice-king, and three foreigners—an American, an English, and a German subject—was objected to by the German as no solution at all, since the trouble was caused entirely by rival interests of three sets of foreigners and the addition of a second official head to each faction would not relieve the condition. The English minister favored the German plan but this was not accepted by the United States. Failing to come to a decision, the conferences were closed for the time being, with the understanding that the political affairs of the islands should remain *in statu quo* until the members of the commission could meet again after having consulted their home governments.

News of the adjournment of the conference without a definite conclusion no sooner reached Apia than the old reign of dissension began anew. Germany made war upon the Samoan king Malietoa for failing to make reparations for certain alleged wrongs. After dethroning and deporting Malietoa, Germany installed Tamasese as king with Brandeis, a German, as adviser. The natives, wanting Mataafa as king, revolted in 1888. Martial law was declared by the German consul at Apia. After a Samoan attack on German forces, landed to protect German plantations, a state of war with Samoa was announced by Germany.

The United States suggested that, as the free election by the Samoans of a king was a point agreed upon in the summer of 1887, the carrying out of the measure would tend to allay the existing strife. It was also stated that Admiral Kimberly, commanding the United States naval forces in the Pacific, had been ordered to proceed to Apia to protect American citizens. The hope was expressed that instructions based on principles of friendly justice and considerate moderation would be given to the commanders of the imperial forces. President Cleveland, in his message to Congress in 1889, insisted that the autonomy and independence of Samoa should be scrupulously preserved according to the treaties made with Samoa by the powers named and their agreements and understandings with each other. The example the United States exhibited of treating with Samoa as an independent state led to a similar course and a similar acknowledgment of native independence by Germany and Great Britain. There was a prevailing calmness of tone in the official correspondence between Washington and Berlin during this peroid (1887-1889) relative to Samoa. It contrasts with the fever ish and hysterical temper of the communications between the consuls in Apia and of the letters to their home governments.

In January, 1889, Prince Bismarck of Germany suggested a conference to resume the consultation between the representatives of Germany, England, and the United States. The proposals of Prince Bismarck were accepted. The representatives of the three powers met in Berlin, April 29, 1889. It was recognized that a purely native government could not maintain itself. No two of the powers would consent to invest the other with exclusive control, so the only possible solution of the problem seemed to be a tripartite agreement to establish and support some form of government at Apia in which all three powers would participate. On June 14, 1889, there was signed what was described as the "General Act of the Conference at Berlin." The principal features of the government planned by this treaty were a supreme court, to consist of one judge, styled chief justice of Samoa, who was to be appointed by the three treaty powers; a municipal government for the district of Apia, by a council whose president was to be agreed upon by the power; a special commission for the settlemnt of claims; and a system of revenue.

The Samoan government gave its formal adherence to the treaty, and it was put into operation. Difficulties were encountered in the administration of the new government. A part of the natives, under the lead of Mataafa, opposed the new government and disregarded its processes until, in July, 1893, civil war again broke out. The treaty powers then intervened with their naval forces to maintain Malietoa, who had returned to the islands and had been re-elected as king. Difficulties were also encountered in separating the jurisdiction of the supreme court and the municipal council of Apia. After native hostilities were suppressed and Mataafa deported, hostilities broke out again in 1894 under the leadership of Tamasee. In the Berlin act, the right to elect their chief

or king was freely given to the Samoans in one sentence, suspended in the next, and a line or so further on appeared to be reconveyed. It was easy to suspect the hand of Germany in the recognition of Malietoa Laupepa. No one is more swift to smell trickery than a Samoan; and the thought that, under the long, bland, benevolent sentence of the Berlin act, some trickery lay lurking, filled him with the breath of opposition.

At one of the sessions of the conference in Berlin it was understood that the arrangements would "be limited to a period of three or five years, to put them to the test." Article VIII provided for amendment after three years. In view of these provisions, meetings presided over by Robert Louis Stevenson were held in Apia in 1892, to adopt proposals for certain desirable changes in the act. These proposals were forwarded to the three powers. The United States alone appears to have been moved by the Stevenson Memorial, for it made an effort to bring about a convention for reconsideration of the act. Both Germany and Great Britain declined to entertain the proposition, and the unsatisfactory governmental system continued to exist to the distress of the nations and annoyance of all concerned. In King Malietoa's appeal for remedies in 1894 he said: "We have our representatives from all parts of the country at Mulinu, in Apia, but the hands of all are tied. We are not allowed to do matters even of minor detail and purely local and which are decided upon by a unanimous vote of these representatives or by a large majority of the same."

President Cleveland, in his third annual message to Congress, 1895, emphasized the opinion that he had entertained before that "our situation in this Samoan matter was inconsistent with the mission and tradition of our government, in violation of the principles we profess." He asked for legislation that would lead the way to our relief from an "obligation both irksome and unnatural."

Supporters of an aggressive foreign policy, however, sprang into existence after the making of the Treaty of Berlin in 1889. They thought that on account of changed conditions the United States "must assume its proper share of responsibility in furthering the common welfare of mankind." According to the amended Berlin agreement the islands were divided between the United States and Germany, Great Britain retiring after her interest in other islands was confirmed. The United States got all islands east of the 171st meridian while Germany got those west of the line. Since the independence of Samoa had already been recognized, it was necessary to obtain possession by persuading the native chiefs to cede their lands voluntarily. This an American naval officer managed to bring about when he was in charge of Pagpago harbor and the American islands. President Roosevelt accepted the cession in 1904, sealing the bargain by sending to each of the chiefs a watch, a medal and a diploma. Congress, however, failed to ratify Roosevetl's acceptance. The islands did not become a part of the United States legally

until 1929, when a joint resolution accepting the islands was passed by Congress and signed by President Coolidge.

In the meantime a naval autocracy held way to the great dissatisfaction of the native chiefs, who made several unsuccessful attempts to get Congress and the President to relieve the situation. President Harding's attempts to assuage the situation by the presentation of more watches and diplomas were useless.

After the legal acceptance of the islands in 1929, a commission made an investigation of island affairs with the view to overhauling the naval government and recommending necessary legislation. In a recent report submitted by this commission, it is recommended that the President appoint a governor for as long a term as possible. Prevention of the acquisition of the land by Samoa and the preservation of Samoan customs is also recommended. Important Samoan chiefs are reported as approving these recommendations and a better government for the Samoans is expected.

THE TREND

The recent report of the Commissioner of Education has this important statement relative to "Radio Education":

"The Advisory Committee on Education by Radio appointed by the Secretary of the Interior made a national survey during the last half of 1929. The Commissioner of Education was chairman of the committee and its work was closely associated with that of the Office of Education.

"The purpose of the survey was indicated by the Secretary of the Interior in these terms:

"The possibilities of radio as an educational tool appeal to educators, broadcasters, manufacturers, and the public at large. This general interest led to a conference in my office at Washington on May 24, 1929. Those present by unanimous vote requested that I should appoint a committee to make a thorough fact-finding study of the situation.

"The report of the committee indicates that commercial groups are using all the available broadcasting channels and sharing less than one-third of them with stations devoted primarily to educational and civic purposes. Broadcasting stations owned and operated by States, municipalities, schools, colleges, and universities are disappearing rapidly. Commercial broadcasters are devoting much time to educational programs but granting them no certain tenure of the air. The financial interests of the commercial stations control their policies. Amusement programs are attracting the largest audiences. The sale of time for advertising is the main source of revenue. Educators have formulated no national policies concerning the conservation or use of radio channels. Neither Congress nor the Federal Radio Commission knows whether the educators of the country wish a proportion of the limited and very valuable radio channels reserved for educational stations, or whether they are content to leave this 'educational tool' entirely in the control of broadcasters who are operating radio stations primarily for their own profit.

"One of the recommendations of the Advisory Committee is that there be established in the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, a section devoted to education by radio. The Payne fund offered the services of its radio council and enough money to pay his travel expenses and secretarial service for the period of 15 months which must elapse before the Department of the Interior could include the radio section in its budget. The offer was accepted, and the work started by the Advisory Committee was continued.

"A study of the report of an investigation made by the United States Senate and statements made by a member of the Federal Radio Commission brought the information that a world monopoly of radio was claimed by a commercial group, and that a suit had been instituted by the Attorney General of the United States to test the legality of the activities of this group. New legislation was being

formulated by Members of Congress who expected to bring it up for action at the next regular session of that body. Efforts were being made by the commercial group claiming the monopoly of radio to have this new legislation relieve commercial broadcasters from certain responsibility which must be assumed by public utility corporations so that these broadcasters would be free to accept or reject speakers or programs at their pleasure, and to exercise the right of censorship over information broadcast from their stations.

"The records of hearings on applications before the Federal Radio Commission show that commercial broadcasting stations in many instances, applied for time, channels, and power which could be secured only by taking them from existing stations owned by state and institutions of higher learning. Attempts to restrict commercial stations were met by the argument that restriction was equivalent to confiscation of property, although the license granted to stations by the commission carried no right to renewal.

"The Office of Education made available to the educators of the country, and to other interested persons, such information as was gathered. The Commissioner of Education is planning a conference in the fall of 1930, at which consideration will be given to the place of education and similar interests in broadcasting, and what legislation, if any, is needed to safeguard these interests."

The December number of the *Journal of the National Education Association* has two articles on the radio which every educator should read: "The Public's Rights in Radio," and "Who Owns the Radio?"

Why every educator in the United States is not a member of the National Education Association and therefore automatically a subscriber to the Journal of the National Education Association, remains a mystery to progressive educators. The cost is but a pittance and the returns so high. The payment of $2 active membership dues entitles a member to attend all meetings of the Association and its departments, to vote for all delegates to the Representative Assembly, to hold office, and to receive the *Journal.* No educator can afford not to afford the *Journal.* We dare to say that they who teach without the information brought by this journal teach in the dark.

The National Educational Association reports that more than 421,000 teachers took special courses in 649 summer schools last summer throughout the country.

Adult education looms constantly as a problem educators must face. Dr. Charles H. Judd, in a searching article of the December number of *School and Society,* points out significantly: Adult education can not be left to those who promote it for private gain. Adult education is demanded for the good of all; it needs large resources

in order to secure suitable material and in order to make this material available in attractive form to the public."

A new position of considerable importance has recently been created in the United States Office of Education and a specialist in Negro Education has been assigned to the office. Its specific and immediate function is to serve as a clearing house of information concerning Negro education; to conduct, direct, and encourage educational research, to stimulate interest in the present status and future possibilities of Negro education; and to assist in coordinating the various researches, activities, and interests of Negro schools and of persons concerned in Negro education and related matters.

The Secretary of the Interior, on the recommendation of the Commissioner of Education, has appointed Dr. Ambrose Caliver to this new post. Professor Caliver has recently completed his work for the Ph. D. degree at Teachers College, Columbia University, and is the first Negro in the country to meet the requirements for the Ph. D. degree in the field of College Administration and Instruction and Educational Personnel Research.

Although the major emphasis of this service will be on public elementary and secondary education, any question or problem relating to Negro education in general will receive careful and interested attention.—*Education Bulletin,* Oct., 1930.

From 20 to 25 per cent of the freshmen who have entered hopefully on their college careers will drop out during their first year, if the usual experience of many institutions is repeated. A plan to cut down this rate has been adopted this fall by the Boston University College of Business Administration, where weekly tests given to all first year students will aim to diagnose their scholastic difficulties and point to the proper treatment.—*Journal of Education,* Nov. 3, 1930.

The largest per cent of over-age pupils in the city schools is in the sixth grade, reaching 20.1 per cent; while in the consolidated schools the largest per cent is in the seventh grade, exactly the same per cent as that reached by the city schools in the sixth grade, says the Office of Education. There is a larger percentage of over-age pupils in all grades of the consolidated schools, except the fifth and sixth grades, than there is in the city schools; the total for all grades is approximately 2 per cent larger in the consolidated schools than in the city schools. —*Journal of Education,* Nov. 3, 1930.

A study recently made at Barnard College shows that city girls are healthier than those who come from villages, towns, and rural districts.—*Journal of Education,* Nov. 3, 1930.

The popular theory that students are now entering college at an earlier age than in the past is not substantiated by the available facts, according to Dean Emil R. Riesen, of the University of Arizona. Although comprehensive figures have never been compiled, the trend in many institutions seems to indicate the freshmen are as old as, and in some cases older than, in college generations of the past. At Harvard, for instance, the average age of freshmen 100 years ago was 16 years and 3 months. Fifty years later, in 1880, it had advanced to 18 years and 7 months, which is not far from today's figures, both in Harvard and at colleges in other parts of the country.—*Journal of Education.* Dec. 8, 1930.